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The atlas includes in all 74 maps and 6 diagrams. The subject covered most elaborately is Industry and Mining, with 29 maps. Next in importance come the subjects of Agriculture and Forestry, 18 maps; Population and Education (including prehistoric settlements, ethnography, literacy, emigration, land tenure, and publications), 8 maps; and Traffic, 7 maps and 4 diagrams. Of the remaining maps 3 are devoted to Energy (coal production, coal reserves, water power, and total energy developed), and the rest cover general and miscellaneous topics.

The section on Industry and Mining is unduly swollen by maps picturing the distribution of minor industries, such as those producing bricks, vegetable preserves, vegetable oil, soap, and candles. On the other hand it gives no map showing the distribution of industrial establishments according to size, although the statistics provide abundant means to illustrate this important aspect to modern industry. Maps showing the subsidies granted by the government to industry are of interest in that the government appears, contrary to what one would suppose, to have been most lavish in the outlying parts of the kingdom, notably in the Slovak districts of the north. In the section on Agriculture most of the crop maps picture area planted, not crop yields; but one map, showing the surplus or deficiency of cereals by counties, brings out clearly the interdependence of the different parts of the former kingdom in the production and consumption of these staples. Two maps in the section on Traffic are noteworthy, in that they distinguish the amount of freight and passenger traffic on the various lines of railroad; information of the kind provided by these maps is not easily procured, for either Austria or Hungary, and is of great value in framing a judgment of the economic relations of the country. Most of the maps are on the scale of 1:4,000,000. The ethnographic map by Professor Paul Teleki is on the scale of 1:1,000,000 and essays to show not only the linguistic distribution but also the density of population, by assigning a square millimeter of the appropriate color to each 100 inhabitants in a district. The map cannot be called a success, unless (as possibly was the case) it was designed to emphasize the ascendancy of the Magyars.

The maps in this atlas are more eloquent than printed pages in convincing the student of the grievous losses which Magyar Hungary brought upon itself in the war. The partition of the old kingdom cut to pieces an organic whole and entails an economic readjustment which will be a slow and most painful process. Magyar Hungary retains one valuable asset—the fertile plain which produces a handsome surplus of food. It fares well enough in the distribution of the current coal product. It loses the larger coal reserves and most of the other mineral resources of the kingdom. It loses the upper course of the rivers and much of the potential water power; it loses its timberland; it loses a great market for its industrial products. It has only the sorry consolation of knowing that, low as it has sunk, it still is better off than the new Austria.

CLIVE DAY

LOUIS LÓCZY, edit.; with contributions by several Hungarian scholars. **A Geographical, Economic and Social Survey of Hungary.** (Publications of the Hungarian Geogr. Soc.) 121 pp.; maps. "Pátria" Press, Budapest, 1919. 6 crowns. 9½ x 6½ inches.

Before the outbreak of the war the Hungarian Geographical Society had published a work whose title in English is "A Geographical, Sociological, Cultural and Economic Description of the Crown Lands of St. Stephen." The main object of publication was "to have it translated into foreign tongues and thereby to propagate a knowledge of the Hungarian kingdom based on authentic data." The volume listed above is an extract of that part of the work dealing with Hungary proper prepared for the peace negotiations. While naturally propagandist in character, it gives much useful descriptive and statistical matter—notably in the chapters on agriculture, forestry, mining, industry, and commerce.

MOROCCAN LANDSCAPES SEEN FROM THE AIR

JULES BLACHE. **Quelques aspects des montagnes marocaines.** Maps, diagrs., ills. *Rev. de Géogr. Alpine*, Vol. 8, 1920, No. 2, pp. 225–258. Grenoble.

In an earlier paper (De Meknés aux sources de la Moulouya: Essai d'exploration aérienne au Maroc, *Ann. de Géogr.*, Vol. 28, 1919, pp. 293–314) M. Blache gave an account of valuable aerial exploration in Morocco and thereby greatly added to our knowledge of the country. Previously information regarding the mountains and plateaus of Morocco had been derived from descriptions such as those of Gentil, De Segonzac, and Fischer, while it was possible to

turn to the excellent topographic maps of Algeria for accurate representations of features, which seem from the descriptions to resemble closely some of the Moroccan types of land forms. We have in the present paper a series of eighteen air photographs, comprising both oblique and vertical views and accompanied by clear explanatory descriptions, which form an exceedingly valuable aid in the study both of Moroccan geography and of land sculpture in general. For the photographs are prepared not merely as views of Morocco but also as illustrations of the mechanism of denudation processes acting on varied structures in a rather arid climate. The views are chosen from several thousand taken in reconnaissance flights by the Moroccan military aviation service. We are informed that the views show typical—and never exceptional—landscapes of the large zones they represent. These zones are as follows: The Meseta, with its two main types of country, (1) the dissected plateaus of flat-bedded sediments and (2) the Jebilet, or residual hills of crystalline rocks which project through sediments; the Central Atlas Mountains; the plain of the upper Moulouya to the east of these ranges; the Great Atlas Mountains of the southwest; and the Rif in the north. A sketch map shows the location of each view.

We find the Central Atlas to be a range of simple structure—anticlinal ridges, monoclinal valleys, and antecedent gorges. The plain of the upper Moulouya is revealed as an arid region, slightly dissected by wadis with irrigated strips along them and with flat-topped tables between them. The Great Atlas south of the Moulouya again shows marked simplicity of form as well as great aridity. In the Rif a great contrast to the other ranges is presented. Evidently the structure is much more complicated. The ranges are dissected to a much greater extent; and in the photographs we see mature valleys, wide, waste-filled basins, and braided rivers.

In the oblique panorama of the dissected plateaus of the Meseta we have an excellent example of the natural contours produced by the alternate outcrop of strong and weak strata, a feature which proved so useful in plotting of form lines on maps prepared mainly from air photographs during the war in Macedonia, Gallipoli, Palestine, and Mesopotamia.

A Geographical Interpretation of Early Biblical History

William Willcocks. **From the Garden of Eden to the Crossing of the Jordan.** viii and 93 pp.; maps. Printed by the French Inst. of Oriental Archaeology, Cairo, 1918. 5s. 10 x 6½ inches.

Interesting and suggestive is this geographic interpretation of the sacred books of Genesis and Exodus by Sir William Willcocks, irrigation expert, designer of the Assuan dam in Egypt, and director of the recent British reclamation works in lower Babylonia. For thirty-four years the author has studied on the spot every episode in the Bible concerned with irrigation. He has come to the conclusion that the stories of the Garden of Eden and Noah's Flood in Mesopotamia, like that of Joseph's famine in Egypt, the ten plagues, and the exodus of the Israelites, all had to do with the control of water in these rainless lands—with irrigation systems established, tampered with, or destroyed. Along the Euphrates he found only two districts which could be irrigated by free flow all the year round and which therefore might have been the scene of the Garden of Eden. One was the reclaimed marshland above the Persian Gulf near the ancient Eridu, site of the Sumerian Garden of Eden. The second lay on the middle Euphrates between Anah and Hit, where a series of cataracts, now much degraded, enabled the benches of alluvial deposit above the present flood line to be irrigated by water drawn off above the falls. Here the author locates the Semitic, or biblical, Garden of Eden. The four distributaries of the river of Eden he identifies as the four offshoots of the Euphrates below Hit, namely, the Kerbela branch, Hindia, Saklawia, and Euphrates proper; and he explains the expulsion from Eden by the degradation of the cataracts below the level of the river terraces, which put an end to irrigation and made the banks revert to desert. It is a question, however, whether two sites for the Garden of Eden are necessary, since the Semitic story was clearly borrowed from the earlier Sumerian version.

The author is most interesting and convincing when he uses his expert knowledge to interpret the Egyptian stories of the Bible. With Cope Whitehouse he places the fortress of Ha-Uar, key of Lower Egypt in the Hyksos period, not at the gateway of the ancient military route from Philistia but at the dam across the canal connecting the Nile with Lake Moeris; because an enemy in possession of this strategic point could cut the dam, draw off the Nile into the Moeris depression, and deprive Lower Egypt of its water supply. This was the explanation of Joseph's famine. At that time Ha-Uar was the frontier fortress